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UNIV. OF
CALIFORNIA

Present Conditions
of
The Child Welfare Work
in Japan.



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CALIFORNIA

Present Conditions
of
The Child Welfare Work
in Japan.



Japan Prepared by
= BUREAU FOR SOCIAL WORK,
Home Department,
JAPANESE GOVERNMENT.

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*Words of Greeting to
the Delegates of
the World's Sunday School Convention.*

It gives me great pleasure to express our greetings of welcome on behalf of the Home Department to all the delegates of the World's Sunday School Convention. There are many things that we wish to show to our national guests, but it seems quite proper to describe our child welfare work in this booklet and to distribute it to all those who are interested in and devoted to the sacred cause of bringing up future generations. If our children are only properly nurtured and trained in an ideal way, and kept up to the world standards, the coming world will become a much safer place in which to live. Indeed, youth is the hope and the glory of the home and the nation and the world.

TAKEJIRO TOKONAMI

Minister of the Home Department,

Oct. 5th 1920.

Tokio, Japan.

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Present Conditions of The Child Welfare Work in Japan.

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Fifteenth Anniversary of the Kobe Day Nursery and
Mr. H. Tsubono, mayor of the city at the time of
the founding.

The Okayama Orphanage at Chausubara and the late
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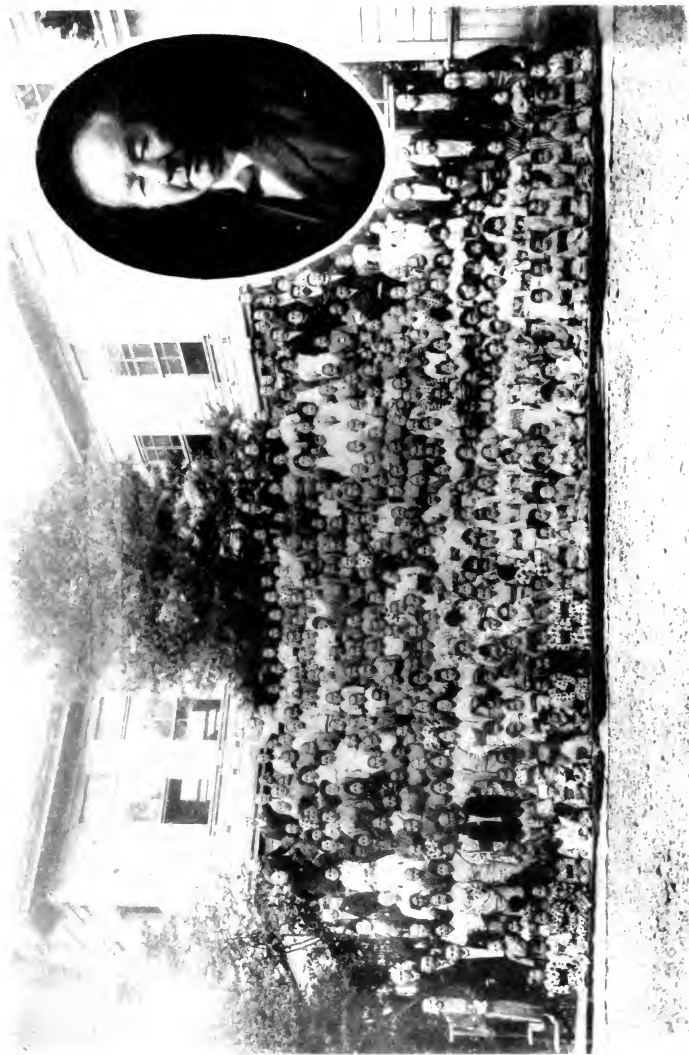
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Hon. T. Tokonami, Minister of the Home Department.

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Viscount Shibusawa, Pres. of the Tokio
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Children's Department of the Tokio Municipal Asylum.

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Musashino-gakuen, National Reform School.



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THE
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THE
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ANTHROPOLOGICAL
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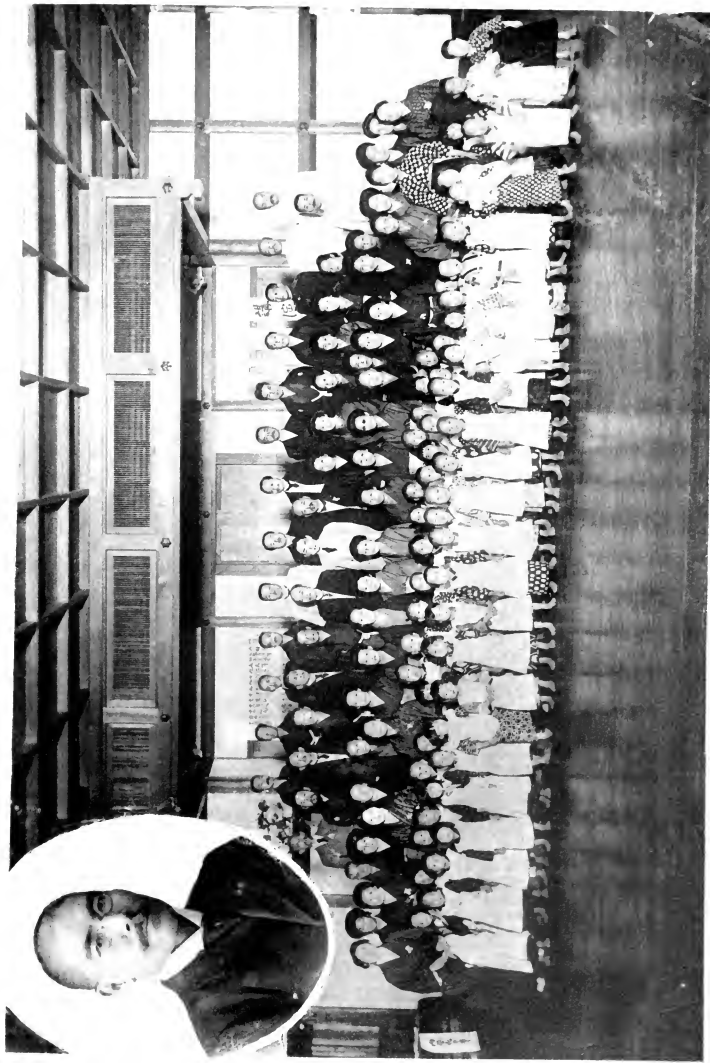
Fukudenkwai, one of the First Orphanages.



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I. The Family System as a Center of the Social Work in the Past.

Good Aspect of the Family System.

The family system was the most salient point of our social conditions in the past, and the theories advanced in Social Work now-a-days were already practiced from ancient times in this country, with the family system their center. This family system, moreover, carried with it another good custom, that is, the mutual help of the neighborhood. These two points, the family system and the mutual help of the neighborhood are the two things to which we point with pride in the social system of the past.

As the results of the family system, the duties of taking care of the old and the young have been observed, not only in the home circles but also among the relatives, according to the law as well as the custom. In other words, the family to a Japanese was not only an economic band but also a home of co-operative activity, an educational center, a paradise for the old and the young.

The best characteristic of the Japanese mother is her love and loyalty for her children, and her highest ideal is to sacrifice all that she has for the uplifting and the nurture of her offspring. A well-known old Japanese poem says:—

“Silver, gold and precious stones,
What are they in comparison
With daughter and sons?”

This is to show how our ancestors had a tender feeling

toward their offspring and the offspring is regarded literally as family treasures.

Hence, the binding power of the family is so strong that our people take it as the last thing to put their old or young under the care of public institutions. Our recent statistics show that out of the four hundred thousand of those who are over eighty years of age in this country, only six hundred are in the asylums for the old. This is enough to show that home is the good refuge for the old people in this country.

Examples of the Mutual Help of the Neighborhood.

Since agriculture is the chief occupation of our country-men even now, and our people used to live in the same location for many generations during the feudal age, the neighborhood meant a great deal of mutual helpfulness in ordinal life as well as in any case of emergency. There are many instances to illustrate the mutual help of the neighborhood. The charity granary of Fukuyama city Bliss Repairing Association of the Shizuoka Prefecture, and the Thanksgiving Union of the Akita Prefecture are the best specimens of these associations.

The changing conditions of the present is modifying our social life to some extent and our industry is making rapid progress. Still our rural population, mostly farmers, is eighty per cent of the whole population; while our urban population, mostly merchants and industrial people, is only twenty percent. The old customs and the principle of the good neighborhood still prevail among us, and we wish to call the attention of our critics who are complaining of the lack of our public relief institutions to the facts that in

the past there was no special call for such institution in our agriculture districts.

Establishment of the New Bureau for Social Work in the Home Department.

The world-wide wave of social reconstruction cannot be denied in this country, and our cities are making rapid growth during the last few years, tending to make the difference between the rich to the poor greater than before, and weakening our family ties. The needs of public relief work to fill up the gap becomes more urgent. Our government has established the new Bureau for social work in the Home Department to lead, to help and to rule the social work in our country.

The following statistics show that our social work has made such developement during the last eight years :—

Statistics of Social Work in Japan.

Various agencies.	Numbers of agencies.		Expenditures.		Property owned.		Numbers of workers.		Total given relief.	
	1910	1918	1910	1918	1910	1918	1910	1918	1910	1918
Reformatories and Industrial schools..	53	54	Yen. 222,459	Yen. 331,894	Yen. —	Yen. —	289	365	1,034	2,952
Orphanages and children asylums..	130	126	429,167	509,517	282,646	2,408,942	757	773	7,266	6,140
Day nurseries	6	64	18,155	103,064	50,455	185,248	49	294	424	2,588
Old people's homes..	12	21	6,026	286,531	1,978	1,562,934	32	207	225	669
Free Dispensaries ..	51	79	802,919	1,269,717	2,402,474	24,035,415	782	1,576	(aggregated total) 970,233	4,172,477
Relief Work.....	28	63	13,987	204,252	207,815	3,000,823	130	256	240	4,572
Centers where men out of work are taught trade	20	23	63,271	386,014	63,767	421,030	73	109	(aggregated total) 956	203,999
Employment Bureaus.	5	27	6,605	98,697	30	161,521	7	66	1,183	137,523
Free lodging houses..	4	25	6,829	107,454	300	149,498	8	89	(aggregated total) 31,584	477,140

Rescue work for women.....	2	8	2,146	19,049	1,517	53,044	5	34	31	579
Homes for deficient children.....	34	72	26,162	209,556	30,681	1,240,858	188	611	968	3,699
Schools for dependent children.....	26	66	13,382	258,876	10,286	641,079	99	500	1,467	15,552
Training nurse maids.	5	12	910	2,876	1,245	9,475	19	38	253	539
Homes for exconvicts.	68	597	—	153,337	193,376	757,054	4,689	114,951	3,552	57,489
Providing tenement houses.....	—	4	—	3,959	—	64,035	—	4	—	879
Miscellaneous educational agencies not reported alone....	5	11	13,744	29,744	2,561	147,147	62	63	284	673
Miscellaneous relief agencies not reported alone.....	33	98	195,260	7,567,742	973,360	42,975,243	147	681	103	5,481
Total.....	—	1,350	—	11,542,279	—	77,902,445	—	120,617	—	239,435

At the end of 1919, the number of the various agencies of the social work increased to 1,430, and the work is making striking progress.

But they are not enough to meet the changing conditions of society since the great war. The rising of the cost of living and the complicating labour problem compelled the establishment of various kinds of public institutions of social service to promote the welfare of the people.

Committee on Social Affairs.

The Home Department, in view of the tendency of the time deemed it advisable to make investigations about the social conditions both at home and abroad with the purpose of availing itself of the suggestions obtained from the investigations in coping with problems that may arise in the future, and organized a committee on social affairs, consisting of thirty members partly selected high officials of the Government partly experts who have special knowledge and experience on such matters. The committee makes investigations about such matters as are requested by the minister of the Home Department and makes reports giving its views on them. The scope of investigation is quite extensive. At the last year's meeting among the subjects brought up for discussion were public markets.

The Housing Problem, Employment Bureau, and the adjustment of capital and labours. The committee is to make a thorough-going investigation of Children's Welfare Work in the near future with the purpose of aiding those institution already in existence and of establishing new ones.

Benevolence of the Imperial Household.

One must not omit to record the generous bene-

volence of the Imperial Household in studying the history of Japanese philanthropy. Whenever there is any case of calamity in any part of the country our Imperial Household is always the first to send relief. The present benevolent fund vested in each prefectural government treasury throughout the country, the total amount of all reaching more than seven million yen, is one instance of such Imperial gifts. Our Red Cross Society founded in 1877, made such a record in this country, under the Imperial patronage, that at present, the society has an endowment fund of thirty million yen and has trained already thousand nurses. Two other organizations, the Patriotic Ladies' League and the Saisei Kwai are making striking progress under the patronage of the Imperial Household. There is no great charity work in the country either public or private, which does not receive the generous patronage of the Imperial Household. It is not too much to say that the Imperial Household is the inspirational source of benevolent works in this country.

Conferences and Subsidies.

Seeing the needs of the investigation and the encouragement of social work in this country our Home Department established in 1909, the Local Improvement Lectureship and has conducted several conferences on Child Welfare work, on slum quarters Improvement and Reformatory superintendents. Since a few years ago, courses of lectures are given in many places in the country to propagandize the principle and the practice of social service work. A Training School for Social workers was started last year, and has already sent out the first graduates.

Subsidies for the encouragement of social work of good record, have been granted since 1909. The

annual grant of these subsidies varies from some twenty thousand to fifty thousand according to circumstances. There is, also a way to honor the merit of those who have made special contributions for social work.

Founding of the National Charity Association and the Association Concordia Incorporated.

A National Charity Association was founded in 1908, as the central organization of all the social agencies in the country. Viscount Shibusawa is the president of the Association. There are several Associated charities as the central organs of each prefecture, so that each independent charity agency may work harmoniously with others. Such cities as Tokio, Osaka, Kioto, Kobe, Yokohama, and other important places have their own associated charity centers. The Fifth National Social Workers Convention was held at Tokio recently, attended by more than one thousand delegates, and the discussions contributed much for the promotion of the cause throughout the country.

Association Concordia with a fund of ten million yen to harmonize the relation of capital and labour has been started, expecting to study and to lead all the labour problems.

These are the signs of the present time to show how the social problem work is moving in this country. There is no doubt that the family system needs to be modified, but the good principle of the old customs must be conserved.

II. Social Aspects of the Child Welfare Work.

Poor Law Concerning the Children of the Poor.

According to the Poor Law of 1874, forlorn children under thirteen years of age shall be given rice at the rate of three bushels and half per year and also the children who, although not strictly forlorn, have no relatives under seventy and above fifteen years of age, and are in distressing condition shall receive the same amount of rice as allowed to the forlorn children. The expenses are to be paid by the national treasury; but as a matter of fact the local public corporations supply the deficiency which amounts to a considerable sum, although their legal responsibility in the matter ends with the actual carrying out of the relief measures.

The statistic of 1917, will give the general idea of the expenses and the number of recipients, as they have not increased or decreased to any great extent in late years.

Government expense...	Y 3,070
Local expense supplementary to the gov-						
ernment expense.	Y 8,452
Local expense	Y 23,630
Total	Y 35,152

The total number of children cared for was 1,203, of whom 213 were cared for at government expense and 990 at local expense, supplementary to government expense.

It should be noticed that, although the local public corporations are not required by law to provide money for the relief of the poor children, the actual financial assistance given by them to the relief work is comparatively large as the government allowance is insufficient, its policy being to let the local authorities take the matter as much as possible into their own hands.

The Foundling Act. The Foundling Act was passed in 1871 and is the oldest of the relief-enactments now in force in Japan. The original act enjoined that three bushels and a half of rice per year should be given to each foundling until she reaches her fifteenth year; but in 1873 it was amended and the age limit was reduced from fifteen to thirteen and has remained so ever since.

The number of foundlings found in Japan in a year is very small compared with those found in any of the European countries within the same length of time,—a fact which Japan can be proud of. For illustration the number of foundlings for the past several years may be given, as follows:—

Year.	Foundlings.	Average.
1911	225	
1912	274	
1913	242	
1914	188	
1915	301	
Average for the five years		246

In a country possessing a population of nearly sixty millions, only two hundred and forty six foundlings a year is indeed a very small proportion. In 1916, the total number of foundlings under the protection of this law was 1,733 and the total expense for the same ¥66,826, which was paid by the government and local corporations.

The foundlings being so few, it is scarcely necessary to have separate asylums for them, so the public corporations put them under the care of orphan asylums.

From the statistics above given it will be seen that the total number of the children under the protection of the Poor Law and the Foundling Act is about 2,930 for a year and the aggregate sum of expenses for them only about ¥101,970. European and American specialists may, no doubt, wonder at so small figures; but I believe that the following facts are the chief causes.

- (a) The Japanese Poor Law is extremely retrenching.
- (b) Social consciousness has not yet dawned upon the necessity of supporting the poor.
- (c) The spirit of mutual help is quite strong.
- (d) The strong solidarity of the family system.
- (e) The strictness of legal responsibility of parents to take care of their children.
- (f) The natural kindness of Japanese people towards children.
- (j) The comparatively small disparity between the rich and the poor.

The Reformatory Act. The Reform act was first enacted in 1900 and was amended in 1908. The act requires each prefecture to establish reform schools to take in delinquent children under eighteen years of age, the highest age-limit of the inmates being twenty. The bulk of the expenses is to be paid by the prefecture; but one half of the expenses required in founding reform schools and one sixth of the running expenses are to be granted from the national treasury.

There are fifty four local reform schools in Japan at present and they are divided into two kinds, the public and the private. The public reform schools are

twenty eight in number, the private ones twenty six. The total number of inmates of all those reform schools was about 2,100 at the end of 1917, of which about five hundred were taken in that same year. They are mostly treated under the family system or under a system which is a mixture of the family system and the dormitory system. One hundred and fifty is the largest number of inmates that a reform school has at present and nine or ten is the smallest. Under the family system, about ten inmates are taken in as a rule and the master and mistress or nurses look after them. They are given some elementary school lessons in the morning and some practical lessons in the afternoon, mostly in agriculture and manual labour. We have no accurate statistics as yet on the results of these efforts; but we can say that seventy per cent of the inmates come out of the reformatory schools much improved. The total expenses in 1917 was ¥246,886 of which ¥44,000, was government subsidy.

Besides the local reform schools, there is one national reform school which was opened in March of last year. One hundred is the limited number of inmates there.

The special feature of our Reformatory Act is that the executive department and not the judicial, is the one that places the delinquent children in the reformatory schools. This is because they believe that the purpose of placing delinquent children in reform schools is not to punish or imprison them, but to educate and improve them, and make them decent members of society. It is, therefore, the prefectural governor who issues the orders to be served to those whom he thinks it to be advisable to put under the care of a reform school. This is a procedure which is seldom seen in other countries.

Orphan Asylums. The origin of the orphanage in Japan is more than ten centuries old; but as it is unnecessary to dwell upon its long and obscure history, I shall speak only of the orphanage work since the Restoration of 1868. The first orphan asylum built in Japan in the Meiji era was the one which was started by a French Catholic nun in 1874. This orphanage has been making great efforts for poor and orphan girls for the past forty five years and takes the first rank among the orphan asylums in Japan in the number of children taken in, which is over four thousand. Besides this, one of the best known asylums in Japan is Okayama Orphan Asylum which was started by the late Juji Ishii who had been greatly inspired by George Muller and it is widely known as the model orphanage in Japan.

There are at present 138 orphan asylums with 6,500 inmates. Their aggregate expense for a year is about ¥420,000. Their properties are estimated at more than ¥2,000,000. They are, with a very few exceptions, private enterprises founded by some benevolent persons, and in financial matters, they are always hard pressed because there are not enough of public orphan asylums to relieve the private ones of their burdens. It is true that the Home Department subsidizes, to some extent, such institutions as are doing excellent works and each prefecture gives some financial aid to those that are within its jurisdiction. But all these aids are far from being sufficient to enable the orphanage workers to carry on their works as they wish.

There are now about 700 charitable institutions in Japan and there are indications that they will increase year after year. It seems that Christianity is responsible for this stirring up of the public conscience.

There are more than 70 charitable institutions under the management of Christians and 30 of these are for orphan children. But charitable institutions are not monopolized by Christians by any means. In fact Buddhists have more than 80 of them under their management and their institutions for orphan children also outnumber those conducted by Christians. It should be mentioned here as a tribute of praise to both Christians and Buddhists that, though they differ in their religions, they are working hand in hand for the cause of charity.

The unmeant orphans are mostly placed under the care of farmers' families and when they reach the school-age they are as a rule, taken into the regular orphanages.

In Japan the farming population is very great compared with the city population and there is not much difficulty, therefore, in finding suitable families among farmers to whom to entrust these children and the result has been excellent. Those who can not be placed in families are taken into the regular orphan asylums where they are now mostly treated under the family system, though in the past they used to be treated under the dormitory system. In the orphan asylums conducted under the family system, they have from ten to fifteen inmates with a nurse or a master and mistress to look after them.

Day Nursery. The first well organized day nursery in Japan was established by the Kobe Women Public Service Association during the Russo-Japanese War. At that time it was necessary to support the poor families left by soldiers who went to the front by giving them some work and to enable mothers with small children to work. They hit upon the idea of the day nursery and immediately some hundred day

nurseries sprung up in different parts of Japan ; but soon after the war all except one or two closed. Lately, however, their necessity was felt again owing to the demands of the time, and as a matter of fact they are increasing rapidly in number compared with other charitable institutions. Almost all the day nurseries in Japan are private establishments and they are divided into crèche and Infant schools. The former take both the unweaned and infants, the latter the infants only. The four day nurseries managed by the War Memorial Day Nursery Association of Kobe and the Samegahashi Infant School of Tokio are among the best known in Japan. - There are over fifty day nurseries now and over three thousand infants taken care of by them. The total expense is more than ¥59,000. In every day nursery great care is taken about the health of the children.

At present there is very little of Settlement work ; but in the day nurseries they have family meetings from time to time and they even visit the poor families and encourage them to save money and give other advice. In this way, they are doing a sort of settlement work to the great benefit of the poor. Though the day nurseries have been only recently organized, their good works are already appreciated by the public.

The Birth Rate and the Death Rate.

The following statistics show that the birth rate not only exceeds the death rate, but also that it is steadily increasing every year—a phenomenon seldom seen in any other country.

	Birth rate	Death rate	Rate of increase of population per 1,000
1885	1,058,137	753,456	7.8
1895	1,335,125	876,837	10.9

1905	1,614,472	1,016,798	12.8
1910	1,737,674	1,037,016	13.4

The statistics for 1910 show that births exceeded deaths by over 700,000.

But though we are very optimistic about the birth rate we are somewhat alarmed about the death rate of babies and infants, for it has been increasing in the past except in very recent years as can be seen in the following statistic on the death rate of unweaned infants less than one year old.

The first five figures show the yearly average ratios of the deaths for every hundred births.

From 1886-1890	11.7	1901-1905	15.4
1891-1895	14.7	1906-1910	15.7
1896-1900	15.3		

And in 1812 the ratio 15.4, in 1913 15.2.

The slight decrease in the death rate as shown in the last two figures may be due to the efforts which the government has been making of late years. The average death rates of children over one year and below five years for one hundred children of respective ages are as follows:—

	Age 1-2	(2-5)	(0-5)
From 1889-1893	4.51	2.24	5.82
1894-1898	4.29	2.07	5.92
1899-1903	3.38	1.70	5.65
1904-1908	4.37	1.98	6.13

The above figures show that the death-rate of children under five years of age has not materially decreased but is still about twice as high as that of some European Countries.

It is a regrettable fact that notwithstanding this enormous death rate of children there are very few private enterprises to combat this problem. At present there is only one mothers' consultation society in Tokio

and another in Osaka. There are hospitals for children the circuit hospitals, visiting nurses and so on that may be availed of in giving medical treatment to sick children, but these accomodations are as a few drops in a bucket. This state of things may look strange in a country which has been called by some the paradise for children; but the fact is that the social consciousness has not been awakened to the actual state public at large having no knowledge of it.

The Committee on Investigation of Health and Sanitation.

There are two very promising organizations started lately to prove this problem, namely, the Committee on Investigation of Health and Sanitation and the lectures for Women's Sanitation. The former which was stated by Imperial Decree in 1916 is under the supervision of the Home Dep't and at present has thirty six members, partly government official, partly non-official experts. The vice-minister of the Home Dep't is the president of the Committee. The work of the Committee is divided into eight divisions, and one of them is the investigation of the health of infants, school children and youth. The matter which has already been investigated and published is the death rate of children under five years for recent ten years, and other matters now under investigation are the sickness of the school children, physical development of babies, the health conditions in the day nurseries and orphan asylums and the conditions of about 20,000 sick infants in the pediatrics attached to the medical school. The completion of the statistics on those matters will facilitate in ascertaining the causes, whether this higher death rate is due to poor nutrition or to the mother's lack of knowledge in rearing children or to endemics and

then the Government will be in a position to devise some suitable means to check the wide spread death and diseases.

The lectures on Sanitation for women are held in prefectures and public corporations in our country. Although there were first started scarcely ten years ago, they are now held throughout most of the country. The aim of these lectures is to diffuse among women knowledge of rearing and care of children.

The regular meetings continue several days at a place and sometimes they have exhibitions of things which are of interest to the work, something like the Babe Week Movement in the West.

It is possible that by these means the death rate of infants in Japan will be reduced as low as in other countries.

III. Educational Aspects of the Child Welfare Work.

Primary School Education.

In 1886 the compulsory Education Act was adopted which requires the children of the school age to attend school till the six years and as a rule no school fees are charged.

Though it is only thirty years since school education became compulsory, school houses have been built all over the country. The following table shows the percentages of matriculations and attendance from 1911 to 1915.

A percentage of matriculation.

(1911)	98.23	(1914)	98.47
(1912)	98.16	(1915)	98.61
(1913)	98.26		

A Percentage of Attendance.

(1911)	92.47	(1914)	93.69
(1912)	92.78	(1915)	94.25
(1913)	93.36		

The number of schools in (1914) was Public 20.440. Private 136. In (1915) Public 20.518 Private 150. The number of school children in (1914), 6,700,000, (1916) 6,900,000.

The expenses are paid by public corporations and they amounted in 1914) to ¥ 56,720,000 and in (1915) to ¥ 60,000,000. This rapid increase of expenditure is due to the fact that the population of Japan increases by 600,000-700,000 every year and consequently new school houses must be built. Such being the case, the burden of the self-governing communities becomes heavier yearly and in some towns and villages, the school expenses amount to one half of their whole expenditure. Last year the Government decided to grant ten million yen annually to relieve the self-governing communities to some extent.

Exemptions. The children of the school age afflicted with lunacy, idiocy or serious illness may be excused from matriculation. Guardians too poor to send their children to school may postpone their matriculation.

It is to be regretted that the nation and the self-governing communities have no legal responsibility for educating those poor children. But the Government is contemplating making their education compulsory, though it is not known yet when the law will be put in force. There are some public and private schools, however, which take in those poor children. So, in fact, the defect in our school regulations is not so bad as it appears. As those special schools have the double aspect of being the institutions of education and of

relief, they are under the joint supervision of the Home Department and the Educational Department.

Institutions of relief for the deformed and the poor children. In 1917 there were twenty nine schools for the blind and dumb (both private and public) three schools for the deaf, and thirty eight schools for the blind. The number of children taken in by those institutions was 3,326. They are given four or six years of common education and practical training, in most cases free of charge. Some of those special schools have dormitories where the students can board with little expense. Most of the blind students become massagists after their graduation; but as the deaf and dumb can not easily get a living, employment offices are established especially for their benefit. The total expense of those 70 institutions was ¥ 176,000 in 1916. The national treasury, the self-governing communities, the educational associations and some individual volunteers contribute to defray the expense.

In 1916, the number of blind children of school age was 3,240: that of dumb children of the same age 6,039. These numbers are rather large in proportion to the number of the children taken in by those institutions for deformed children. But as they are building new schools and enlarging some of the old ones, they will be able to take in larger percentage in future.

As to the education of poor children, although the local authorities are not legally responsible for the education of the poor children, whose matriculation is delayed by the reasons stated before, some of them have voluntarily established schools for the poor children. Besides these there are some conducted by individual benefactors. In 1915 those were 67 schools of this kind, of which 52 were day schools and 15 night schools. The total number of the pupils in these

schools was 14,176. The expenses for the same year amounted to about ¥ 142,000. Moreover almost every town and village has societies for the protection of the children of the school age. They distribute stationaries and lunches among the poor children. In this way, the inadequacy of the school regulations is supplemented to some extent.

The School Physicians. In 1898 an Imperial Decree was issued to the effect that all primary schools except those in small towns and villages having less than five thousand inhabitants should hire physicians to improve their sanitary conditions—the physicians are to be appointed by the local magistrates. Most of the schools except those in the large cities can not afford to engage school physicians exclusively attached them—only those in large cities can do that. Consequently they hire ordinary practitioners. Thus nearly seventy seven percent of the entire primary schools, that is 15,300 out of 27,000, have their physicians. Those physicians inspect the sanitary condition of the schools from time to time and once a year they make physical examination of all the pupils and make reports to the Department of Education and also to the guardians of the students.

For the better supervision of the sanitation of schools, the Educational Department established the School Sanitary Office in the Department in 1915 and in addition to this, organized the School Sanitary Association as the consulting organ of the Minister of Education, and also holds lecture classes in the Department for the benefit of the school physicians from all over the country. Apart from this supervision of the Educational Department, some prefectures have their own supervisors.

The results of the physical examination of the

school children for ten years (1906-1915) show that the height, weight and lung capacity of the pupils are getting more satisfactory.

Supplementary Industrial Schools. As in other countries there are many graduates of primary schools in this country who desire to engage in some industry. To meet this demand the Japanese Government issued the Industrial School Order, encouraging the establishment of such institutions as are necessary to give proper vocational training. Those institutions are Technical, Agricultural, Commercial, Merchantile, Marine, and Supplementary Industrial Schools.

The supplementary schools are divided into Technical, Agricultural, Fisheries, Commercial, and there are vocational schools. They matriculate primary school graduates and their equivalents. The length of the course and the number of study hours vary according to the season, locality and the like; for instance the supplementary Agricultural Schools are opened during the winter season when there is little work to be done by farmers. The supplementary schools are of very recent origin in the country, but they are making rapid progress. Of those the Agricultural Schools are most numerous. The lessons taught in common throughout the various kinds of supplementary schools are morality, the vernacular and Arithmetic. Other lessons vary according to the kind of the school.

In 1916 the number of the public and private supplementary schools was 7,063 and that of the students 369,000. The following statistics show the number of pupils in all kinds of supplementary schools for the same year.

Number of Schools.

9,394	Public	3,021	Private	9,697	Total.
Number of pupils.					

565,899 „ 11,868 „ 577,747 „
Expenditure.

¥ 931,134 „ unknown unknown

The supplementary school education is not yet compulsory but the wonderful growth of this kind of school in so short a period shows that it is almost as good as compulsory, and it is believed that the government will extend their courses of instruction by two years and then require those who do not receive high school education to attend some of the supplementary schools.

The Religious Education. Catholicism was introduced into Japan several hundred years ago ; but Protestantism came in only at the beginning of the Meiji era (1868). In 1872 the first Sunday School was opened, but for some time the growth was rather slow. About twelve years ago, however, Mr. Brown, General Sec. of W.S.S.A. came to Japan and the National S.S.A. of Japan was organized and from that time the Sunday School work has made rapid progress, until in 1917 the number of Sunday Schools reached 2,473 and that of the Sunday School children 160,000.

The following table will show how rapidly the Sunday School work is growing.

Year	No. of School	No. of Attendants
1907	857	64,910
1912	1,588	106,559
1917	2,773	156,245

It is believed that the present World's Convention of the Sunday School will bring a new epoch to the Sunday School work in this country and will make a great contribution to the general education of our children.

Buddhist Sunday Schools.

Sunday Schools were at first all Christian institutions but of late Buddhists also began to feel their need and have established their own school, and it should not be overlooked that they have made remarkable progress.

Young Men's Association.

The Young Men's Association is an institution wherein the boys, who, though graduates of primary schools, can not receive higher education, get together and pursue supplementary studies, largely industrial works and citizenship.

The management of the institution is left to the self-governing communities, the government only giving instructions on proper occasions.

The most of the associations were organized after the Chino-Japanese War and again after the Russo-Japanese War.

As a social organization, it had done much good for social improvement. But in 1915, in view of the Great European War and for the future welfare of Japan, Ministers of the Education and the Home Dep't gave joint instruction to the prefectural governors for the improvement of Y.M.A. which brought then under a system and made them doubly efficient.

In most cases each city, town and village, constitutes a Y. M. A. district and has its headquarters; but within a district branches are established to facilitate the work and bring the members into close touch. In some countries and prefectures they have headquarters to supervise Y.M.A. work within their districts. The age limit is not quite uniform throughout the country, but in most places twenty, and in some, twenty-five years of age is the limit. According to the last year's

report of the Home Dep't, there are 18,482 Associations and 2,932,113 members.

Among the various departments of work carried on by Y.M.A. the most general are the supplementary education, circulating library, Keiro Kai (veneration of aged people) temperance work, physical training improvement of amusement, popular education, and moral training of young men.

Instruction in the Association is mostly given by lectures from time to time by school teachers, local officials, religious leaders and some times by businessmen.

The expenses of the Associations are paid: (1) out of the money earned and contributed by the members of the Association, (2) subsidies from the cities, towns and villages (3) Individual subscriptions (4) Income from the capital (5) The proceeds from Co-operative enterprises of the Association.

The total expenditure of all the Associations in the country for 1916 was ¥ 736,750. Their property in the same year was estimated at ¥ 1,000,000.

Young Women's Association.

The aim of this association is practically the same as that of the Y.M.A. namely to make more efficient those girls and young women who are graduates of primary schools but who can not get higher education.

The work of this Association is naturally different from that of Y. M. A. The members are trained in domestic work, hygiene, rearing of children, cooking, sewing, family nursing, morality and so on.

The instruction is given by lectures by experts in these lines of work.

These Associations are all of very recent origin; but they already number 8,852 and have 1,049,652

members and the age limit of the membership varies from twenty to thirty according to different places.

One very noteworthy feature of these two organizations is that they sometimes have joint meetings. The occasions for those joint meetings are when the Associations join in school exhibits, art exhibits, lectures, lesson on moral culture, and in joint charitable work.

It is noteworthy because in this country the comingling of young men and women in this way is very rare, and those joint meetings, though humbly started may if wisely conducted in a large scale have a great significance for the social welfare of this country.

Treatment of Juvenile Criminals. In 1907 the Criminal Code of Japan was revised and it fixed the age of discretion at fourteen. It says "the acts of persons under 14 years of age are not punishable." Young offenders above that age are punished under the ordinary criminal law, there being no special laws for them.

When a police officer apprehends a young offender he takes him into a police station and there and then examine him and if the offence is only slight he is let off with an admonition, if it is not so slight or so serious he is kept in a House of Detention for not more than thirty days, if it is serious he is sent to the public procurator's office, and then the procurator examines the case and decides whether the offender should be prosecuted or not. The average number of young offenders subjected to Judicial examination in the last five years was about 30,000; of these only 10,000 were prosecuted according to the regular law some of them were fined, some were put under police oversight, and some put in jail.

The average number of those imprisoned during

the period of the five years 1913-1917 was 2,248

Statistics however reveal an annual decrease in the number of juvenile offenders in prison beginning with the year 1914, as shown in the accompanying table :

	Male	Female	Total
1913	2,156	183	2,341
1941	2,684	189	2,473
1915	2,092	172	2,264
1916	2,021	163	2,184
1917	1,828	148	1,976

The form of trial of young offender is not uniform throughout the country, but in large cities like Tokyo, Osaka and others, the courts have a juvenile Dep't with a special judge for it. We usually segregate the young offenders from adult criminals and have separate rooms for them and the trials are not opened to the public. In these matters the spirit and the method closely resembles those of the Juvenile Courts in America and Europe. But as there is no special laws for them they are adjudicated according to ordinary criminal law.

The prison regulations provide that the offenders under eighteen years of age who are subjected to more than two months of penal servitude may be put into special prisons or special dep'ts of regular prisons and that they may be kept in them until they reach twentieth year. Thus the juvenile offenders are treated in a different way from that in which ordinary criminals are treated the object being their protection and reformation more than punishment. More over they are obliged to attend school a given number of hours every day and even the labour they are required to do is rather for the training of these juvenile offenders than for supplementing the funds by which the prisons

are maintained. At present there are nine such juvenile prisons in principal cities of Japan, and several more will be established in the near future.

In the treatment of juvenile offenders, both the grade system and the mark system are adapted and the choice between them is left to each prison, but they are now in the experimental period. Whether they use the grade system or the mark system they keep each prisoner in a separated cell for the first three or four months of the first three or four months of his imprisonment in entire seclusion from the outside world, and if he shows signs of improvement he is promoted to a higher grade and his treatment becomes more lenient.

The result of this treatment is shown in the following table.

	First offenses	Second and later offenses
1913	2220	585
1914	1903	470
1915	1851	413
1916	1787	397

Thus it may be seen that the numbers of offenses is decreasing every year, but that of second offense and later offenses have not materially changed. The latter fact may be due partly to not imposing indefinite sentence and partly to the lack of social sympathy with the discharged prisoner.

Protective Society.

It can easily be imagined that many of those who are set free without trial will repeat the offence if adequate protection is not given to them. Therefore whether the juvenile offenders are homeless or not, some further means of protection is absolutely necessary. In this regard we regret there is no Probation

System as yet. Not that there is nothing done in the way of their protection, for there are two such places for boys and one for girls in Tokyo. In those two places for boys they look after more than one thousand boys every year, and their work in seven cases out of ten is successful.

There are some more of these societies outside of Tokyo, but they are not so active in their work as those in Tokyo. It is to be hoped that many more such societies will be organized in future to give adequate protection to the misguided youth.

The Children's Act. Though various attempts have been made at devising means of prevention of juvenile crimes these efforts have not accomplished the desired results. Believing the establishment of the Juvenile Court would be best suited for the accomplishment of this object, the Law Investigating Committee have been working at a bill for some years, and the bill is nearly completed: it is not time yet for its publication; but generally speaking it is a bill seeking to apply a sort of probation system, to those under eighteen years of age who have committed some criminal offences or are inclined to do so. What the bill seeks to accomplish is as follows.

- 1) To give admonition; from the Court to Juvenile offenders.
- 2) To give admonition; from the principal of the school.
- 3) To demand a written promise for repentance.
- 4) To hand them over to some protector on some conditions.
- 5) To place them under the care of some religious organization or protective societies.
- 6) To place them under probation officers care.
- 7) To send them to Industrial Schools.

8) To send them to Reformatories.

In other articles there are features not seen in the laws of other countries ; but on the main, they are practically the same as the regulations of Juvenile Courts of America and Europe. If the bill passes after some ammendment it will do a great deal of good in the way of rectifying the defects of the present law.

IV. Economical Aspects of the Child Welfare Work.

Factory Work.

The development of big factories in Japan is of very recent origin. In fact it is not fifty years old yet. Therefore the capitalists and factory owners do not have much experience in the management of factory works.

Before the introduction of the factory system, the various industries of Japan carried on their business as handicraft or home industry. In those days when international trade was forbidden and the principle of "self-supply" had to be enforced, no great convenience was felt from those old fashioned methods and the handicraftmen and those who were engaged in home industries dragged along in their work from morning till late at night in a most lax manner without any definite restriction of time. The relation of the employer and employee was, of course, that of master and servant. But since the factory has supplanted home industry, many operatives have begun to work with wonderful machinery with a limit of definite time.

Though such a violent change has been accomplished in a short time, nevertheless, the relation of the capitalist and the factory workers still remained that of master and servant. As to the long hours of labor both employers and employees and the public at large, being long accustomed to it, never thought any thing was amiss.

The Factory Act. Such being the conditions under which the factory system developed, the Government perceived the necessity of taking some protective measures and in 1882 organized a committee to investigate the actual conditions and customs of the factories throughout the country and in 1897 a bill was drafted based on the results of investigation by this committee. After many years of hard labour, on the part of those who are concerned in the problem, it finally passed Parliament in 1911; but it was not until 1916 that it became operative, owing to the fact that it took a long time in deciding on the rules of enforcing the law.

As a result of this law, An Imperial Decree was issued enjoining the Department of Agriculture and Commerce to establish a factory section in the Department. In pursuance of this decree the Department appointed the vice-minister as the sectional chief with four factory supervisors and five sub-supervisors to assist him. Moreover it was decided to have local supervisors placed in several important places and in fact there are now about two hundred distributed in various parts of the country. The expenditure required in this work is about ¥200,000.

The Factory Law and the Children Laborer. Although we have now the Factory Law for the protection of child laborers, no special law has been enacted as to the restriction of the work-hours of adult laborers, it being left entirely to the agreement between the employers and the employees.

The restrictions placed upon the child-labor are as follows:—

(1) The age of the child laborer. “The factory owners (employers) are not allowed to hire children under twelve years of age except under special administrative permission.”

(2) Working hours for children. “Children under fifteen years of age are prohibited from working more than twelve hours a day. But in certain kinds of work, they can increase the regular length of labor by two hours, for fifteen years after the enforcement of the law. And in special emergencies the employer may extend the working time of the employees by additional two hours a day for not more than seven days in a month by applying for permission to the administrative office, or he may, if the seasonal urgency of the business requires it, lengthen the hours by one hour a day, if it is not for more than one hundred and twenty days in a year, with permission from the administrative office.”

The Prohibition of Night Work.

“Children under fifteen years of age are not allowed to be employed in any work after 10 P.M. or before 4 A.M. But for fifteen years after the enforcement of the law, those special industries which require night work or continual day-and-night work may be exempted from the application of this law by the permission of the Minister of the Department.”

Holidays and Recess Hours.

“To children under fifteen years of age, two holidays should be allowed in a month and the children of the same age who are employed in a business requiring day-and-night works, four holidays should be

allowed in a month, and if the working time should exceed six hours a day, a recess of at least half an hour should be given to them, if ten hours, a recess of at least one hour."

Cases where assistance is to be given. "When a factory operative is disabled by an accident, falls sick, or dies without any serious fault of his own the employees is required to give financial assistance to him or to his surviving family."

The number of child laborer in 1916. The number of child workers in factories in 1916 is shown in the accompanying table:—

Age	Boys	Girls	Total
10—12	1,938	8,976	10,914
12—15	29,853	103,717	133,570
All ages	31,791	112,693	144,484

The total number of the adult operatives and the child-laborers in factories being about a million, the child laborers form nearly fifteen per cent. of the workers in factories.

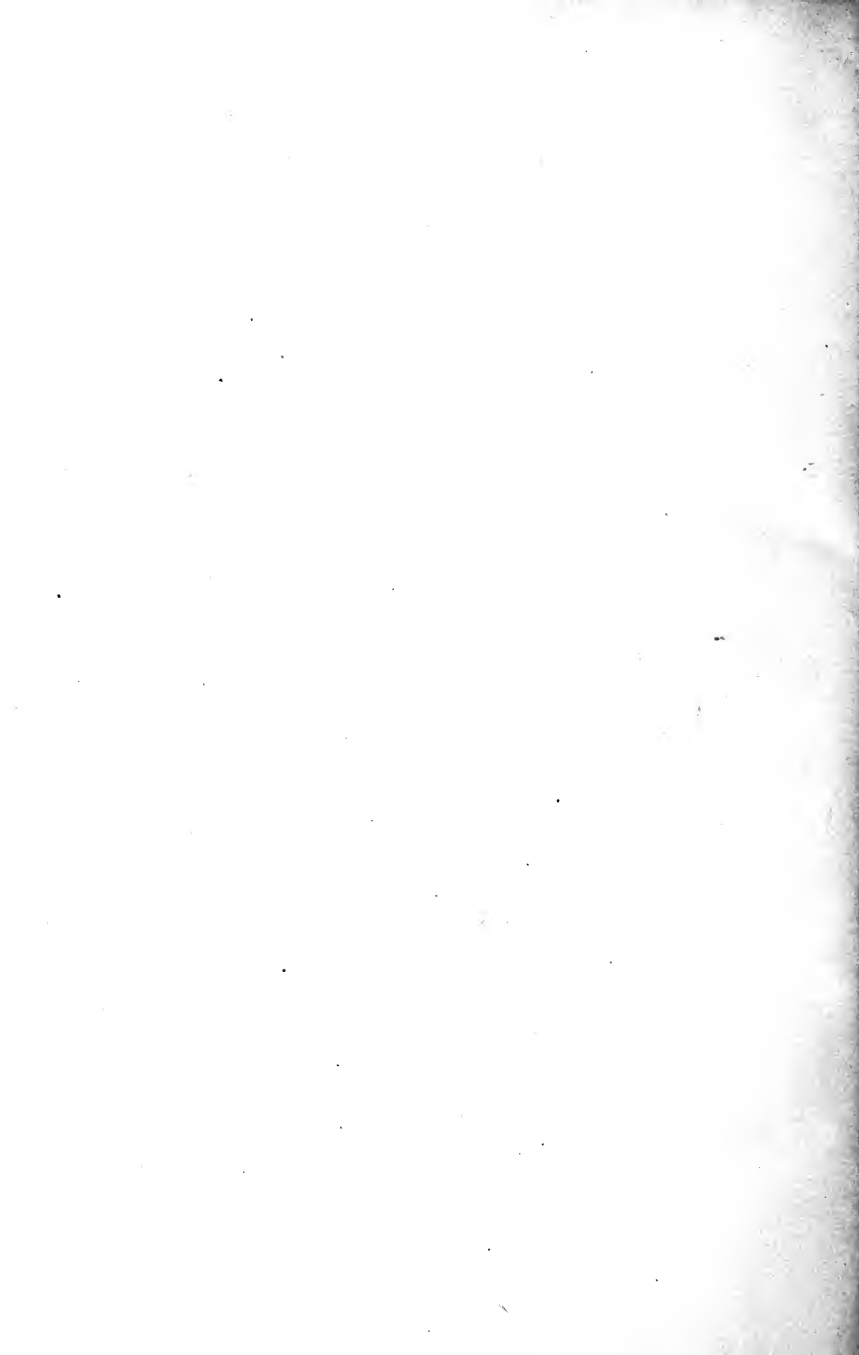
Welfare Work.

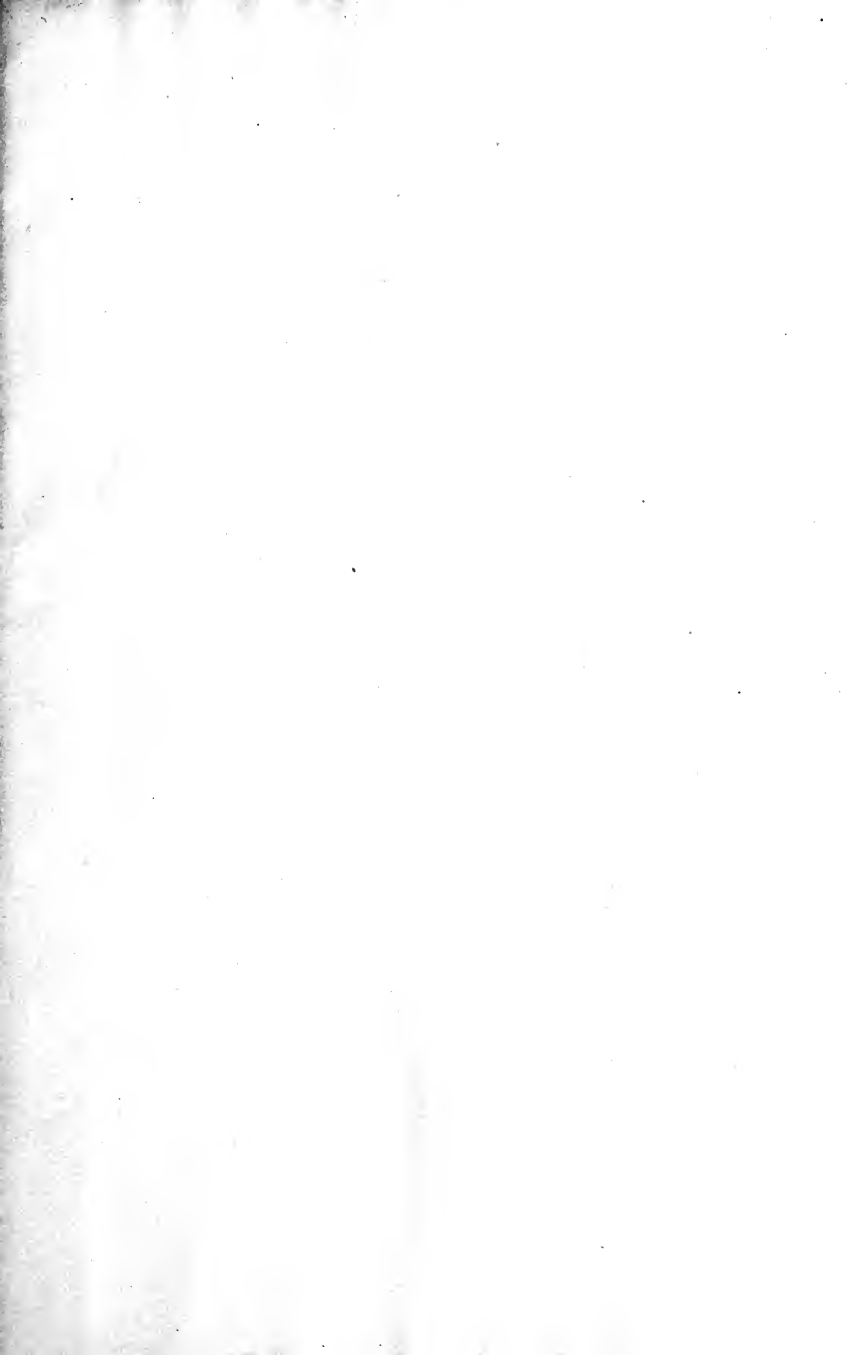
Special arrangements made for the promotion of the laborers's welfare are not few. In the Prefecture of Tokyo there are about 1,600 factories of all sizes and about 230,000 operatives. There are about 500 factories that employ more than 50 workers. Sixty three out of these 500 factories have mutual aid societies, some of which give financial aid in case of sickness or retirement of the members, out of the fund paid up by the operatives, exclusively, and others, out of the fund contributed by the operatives and the employers who usually contribute as much as or half as much as the total sum of the contributions by the employees.

There are also day nurseries, rent-free houses,

dormitories, bath-houses, places of amusement and so on, altogether numbering 210. And for the education of the employees there are fifty six institutions where they train apprentices, give supplementary instruction or primary school education and the prospect is that these institutions will gradually increase.

We have to confess that our labour position is still in a primitive condition, and our way of protecting our child labourers is very imperfect, but, I wish to say that labor in Japan has a peculiar history and circumstances, and now to adopt the American or the European labor system bodily in entire disregard of that history and circumstances would be only to bring on unnecessary disturbance if not disaster. As principles, the propositions made by the Committee on the International Labor Alliance meet our approval just as much as in any other country ; but our country is under the necessity of steering her course in due regard to her peculiar internal conditions as well as external circumstances, and for this reason our country may have to be treated as an exception. We are not of course, satisfied with the present factory act ; but it takes time to reach our goal. Japan, though not very slow in making progress, requires time in bringing about such fundamental changes as suggested by the International Labour Congress at Washington, last year.





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